Metabolic interplay between *Proteus mirabilis* and *Enterococcus faecalis* facilitates

polymicrobial biofilm formation and invasive disease

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<u>Abstract</u>

Catheter-associated urinary tract infections (CAUTI) account for 40% of all nosocomial

infections and can lead to significant life-threatening complications such as bacteremia.

Microbial biofilms play an important role in the development and pathogenesis of CAUTI, and

these biofilms are often polymicrobial. *Proteus mirabilis* and *Enterococcus faecalis* are two of

the most common causes of CAUTI, and they often persistently co-colonize the catheterized

urinary tract. We previously demonstrated that co-culture of *E. faecalis* with *P. mirabilis*

increased biofilm biomass, antimicrobial resistance, and disease severity. In this study, we

uncover the metabolic interplay that drives biofilm enhancement and examine the contribution of

this polymicrobial interaction to CAUTI severity. Though compositional and proteomic biofilm

analyses, we determined that the increase in biofilm biomass stems from an increase in the

protein fraction of the polymicrobial biofilm. We further observed an enrichment in proteins

associated with ornithine and arginine metabolism in polymicrobial biofilms compared to single-

species biofilms. By testing mutants of *E. faecalis* and *P. mirabilis,* we found that L-ornithine

secreted by the *E. faecalis* ArcD antiporter promotes L-arginine biosynthesis in *P. mirabilis* via

ArgF, which ultimately fuels production of proteins that facilitate contact-dependent interactions

to enhance biofilm biomass. We further demonstrate that ArcD and ArgF are not important for

urinary tract colonization by either species when alone, but ornithine/arginine interplay is critical

for the increased disease severity that occurs during coinfection. This study provides deeper

insight into the polymicrobial interactions occurring during CAUTI and highlights how these

interactions can have significant impacts on pathogenesis and bacterial persistence.

Introduction

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are among the most common infections worldwide and account for approximately 40% of all nosocomial infections in the United States (1–4). UTIs can be classified into two broad categories, uncomplicated and complicated UTI, dependent upon the presence of risk factors, disease severity, and location of infection (1, 3, 5). Uncomplicated UTIs are infections in otherwise healthy patients and typically resolve with antibiotic treatment, whereas complicated UTIs represent infection in patient with additional risk factors for treatment failure, recurrence, morbidity, or mortality, such as the presence of an indwelling urinary catheter (1, 5). Urinary catheterization is a common procedure in healthcare settings, particularly for the elderly, long-term care patients, and critically ill patients (6–10). Catheter insertion facilitates the development of bacterial colonization through a variety of means, including mechanical disruption, induction of inflammation, and by providing an ideal surface for bacterial attachment (11–14). Each day a urinary catheter is in place, there is a compounding 3-8% incidence of bacteriuria (presence of bacteria in the urine), and the majority of patients with long term catheterization (>28 days) will experience at least one symptomatic CAUTI (6, 15–18). The epidemiology of CAUTI also differs from that of uncomplicated UTI; uncomplicated UTIs are most often caused by *Escherichia coli,* while complicated catheter-associated bacteriuria and CAUTI are caused by a more diverse range of pathogens in addition to *E. coli,* including, *Proteus mirabilis, Enterococcus faecalis, Klebsiella spp., Pseudomonas aeruginosa,* and *Staphylococcus* species (5, 19, 22, 23). Catheter-associated bacteriuria and CAUTI are also frequently polymicrobial, which can further complicate treatment efficacy and infection severity (19–21).

Despite its frequency, polymicrobial CAUTI and the complex polymicrobial interactions

occurring during disease are not well understood. Our prior work identified *P. mirabilis* and *E.*

faecalis as the most common and persistent co-colonization partners in catheterized individuals

(10, 19, 31), suggesting that interactions between these species facilitate persistent colonization.

P. mirabilis is a Gram-negative rod-shaped bacterium that possess numerous virulence factors

(urease, biofilm formation, swarming motility) that contribute to the establishment of CAUTI

and progression to secondary infections, and is the most common cause of infection-induced

urinary stones, catheter encrustation, and blockage (24–26). *E. faecalis* is a Gram-positive, non-

motile, and highly resistant bacterium of growing medical concern (28–30). Both species pose

serious challenges to effective treatment that are likely compounded by co-colonization. It is

therefore critical to understand the interactions between these two species and to identify

potential strategies for disrupting co-colonization.

We previously demonstrated that *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* co-localize on catheters and

within the bladder during experimental CAUTI, resulting in polymicrobial biofilms with

enhanced biomass and antibiotic resistance (10). However, the underlying mechanism of biofilm

enhancement was not elucidated. Coinfection with *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* also dramatically

increases the incidence of urinary stone formation (urolithiasis) and bacteremia (39), although it

is not yet known if the increase in disease severity is related to increased catheter biofilm

biomass. In this study, we uncovered the metabolic interplay that drives biofilm enhancement

and examined contribution to infection severity. We demonstrate that secretion of L-ornithine

via the ArcD arginine/ornithine antiporter drives L-arginine biosynthesis by *P. mirabilis,*

ultimately increase the protein content of polymicrobial biofilms and facilitate dissemination

from the urinary tract to the bloodstream. Thus, modulating the metabolic interplay between

these species could potentially disrupt polymicrobial biofilm formation, persistent colonization,

and risk of progression to severe disease.

Results

P. mirabilis and _E. faecalis_ polymicrobial biofilms have increased biofilm biomass that is associated with increased protein content. _P. mirabilis_ and _E. faecalis_ are frequent and persistent co-colonizers of catheterized patients and under these conditions we hypothesize that polymicrobial biofilm formation plays a substantial role in mediating the persistence of these two organisms. To investigate this hypothesis, we began by looking at single and polymicrobial biofilm formation in TSB-G (Tryptic soy broth supplemented with 1.5% glucose) under stationary conditions in 24- well plates. Biofilm biomass was assessed using crystal violet staining, while bacterial colony forming units (CFUs) were determined via serial dilution and plating on appropriate agar for each organism. _E. faecalis_ forms slightly larger single-species biofilms than _P. mirabilis_; however, when grown together, biofilm biomass is significantly enhanced (Figure 1 A), as previously reported (32). We confirmed that the increase in biofilm biomass was not driven by changes in bacterial viability or counts as ~10^8 CFUs of each species were recovered from the single and co-culture biofilms (Figure 1 B). To determine the source of the increased biofilm biomass, we quantified the amount of extracellular DNA (eDNA), total carbohydrate, and total protein content of the biofilm suspension (BS), the cell-associated fraction of the biofilm (CF), and the NaOH-extracted extrapolymeric substance fraction (EPS) from single and polymicrobial biofilms. No significant increases in eDNA or carbohydrates were observed for the polymicrobial biofilm compared to _P. mirabilis_ and _E. faecalis_ single-species biofilms (Figure 1 C and D). However, the polymicrobial biofilm had a significant increase in the protein content of the biofilm suspension and cell-associated fraction compared to single-species biofilms (Figure 1 E). Thus, biofilm enhancement appears to be driven by a specific increase in protein content stemming from the cell-associated fraction rather than the EPS. The

importance of protein in mediating the enhancement phenotype was confirmed by establishing

biofilms in the presence of 50 µg/mL of proteinase K (PK), which had no effect on single-

species biofilms but resulted in a significant reduction in biomass of the polymicrobial biofilm

(Figure 1F).

Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry analysis of single and polymicrobial biofilms

was next used to identify the proteins that are enriched in the polymicrobial biofilms. This

analysis revealed significant differences in protein abundances linked to a variety of metabolic

pathways and virulence factors in *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* (Table 1 and Supplemental

Material). Proteomic analysis highlighted significant changes in metabolic pathways within *P.*

mirabilis and *E. faecalis*, with an increase in abundance of multiple proteins related to ornithine

and arginine biosynthesis and metabolism. These changes in ornithine and arginine metabolism

drew immediate interest in light of previous work by Keogh et al, wherein L-ornithine export

from *E. faecalis*, driven by the ArcD L-ornithine/L-arginine antiporter, modulated biofilm

formation, siderophore production, and fitness of *E. coli* (33). As detailed in Figure 2, *P.*

mirabilis can either directly metabolize L-ornithine to the polyamine putrescine via *speF,* or it

can use L-ornithine for L-arginine biosynthesis via *argF,* which can then also be catabolized to

putrescine via *speAB*. We therefore focused on uncovering the contribution of this pathway to

polymicrobial biofilm enhancement.

Arginine biosynthesis from ornithine is a critical determinant of *P. mirabilis* fitness *in vitro*.

Before investigating the importance of arginine/ornithine metabolism in mediating the biofilm

enhancement phenotype, we first examined the growth characteristics of an *E. faecalis arcD*

mutant as well as *P. mirabilis* mutants *speF* (PMI0307) and *argF* (PMI3457) under relevant

conditions. Disrupting ornithine export had no impact on *E. faecalis* growth or viability as the

arcD mutant grew similarly to wild-type OG1RF in brain heart infusion broth (BHI), tryptic soy

broth supplemented with 1.5% glucose (TSB-G), and pooled human urine (Figure 3 A, B, & C).

Ornithine metabolism and arginine biosynthesis by *P. mirabilis* had no impact on growth or

viability in rich media, as the *argF* and *speF* mutants grew similarly to wild-type HI4320 in

TSB-G and Luria-Bertani broth (LB) (Figure 3 D & E) and displayed similar motility and urease

activity (Supplemental Figure 1). In minimal salts media (PMSM), loss of *speF* had no impact

but loss of *argF* completely abrogated *P. mirabilis* growth (Figure 3 F). The *argF* mutant growth

defect could be fully rescued by supplementation with either L-citrulline or L-arginine but not by

L-ornithine or the arginine catabolic products agmatine or putrescine, demonstrating that

mutation of *argF* results in L-arginine auxotrophy in *P. mirabilis* (Figure 3 G-I and Supplement

2).

Human urine is considered to be a nutrient-limited medium for bacteria, providing mainly

amino acids and small peptides as nutrient sources (34). When grown in pooled human urine, the

speF mutant grew similarly to wild-type while viability of the *argF* mutant stopped increasing

after ~3 hours (Figure 3 J). This corresponds to the timing of a ~50% reduction in the arginine

concentration of urine (from ~134 µM to ~60 µM) by wild-type *P. mirabilis* (35), which is

notable as a prior study observed that growth of an *E. coli* arginine auxotroph became limited

when the concentration of arginine decreased below 60 µM (36, 37). Importantly, growth of

argF in human urine could again be rescued by supplementation with L-citrulline, much like

growth in minimal medium (Figure 3 J).

Subtle fitness defects can often be further magnified when a mutant strain is directly

competing against its parental isolate. We therefore conducted co-challenge experiments in

which cultures were inoculated with a 1:1 mixture of each mutant versus wild-type and a

competitive index was calculated based on their ratio at the start of the experiment and hourly

thereafter. During direct co-challenge with wild-type *P. mirabilis,* fitness of the *argF* mutant was

significantly decreased after just 2 hours of growth in urine, likely due to competition for

arginine, and this could again be rescued by supplementation with citrulline (Supplemental 3). In

contrast, no fitness defects were observed for the *speF* mutant or the *E. faecalis arcD* mutant.

Thus, arginine biosynthesis is critical for *P. mirabilis* growth in minimal medium and fitness in

human urine but ornithine secretion by *E. faecalis* and ornithine catabolism to putrescine in *P.*

mirabilis are dispensable.

L-ornithine secretion by *E. faecalis* facilitates polymicrobial biofilm enhancement

via L-arginine biosynthesis in *P. mirabilis.* To investigate the contribution of *E. faecalis*

ornithine export and *P. mirabilis* ornithine metabolism to polymicrobial biofilm enhancement,

we established single and polymicrobial biofilms utilizing the *speF, argF,* and *arcD* mutants and

measured biofilm biomass, CFUs, and biofilm protein content. In TSB-G, none of the mutants

exhibited differences in single-species biofilm biomass. However, disrupting *E. faecalis arcD*

caused a slight decrease in polymicrobial biofilm biomass, and the combined disruption of *E.*

faecalis arcD and *P. mirabilis argF* completely abrogated the polymicrobial biofilm

enhancement phenotype (Figure 4 A). These differences were again not driven by any alteration

of viable CFUs (Supplement 4), indicating a specific alteration in biofilm biomass.

We previously demonstrated that direct cell-cell contact was required for biofilm

enhancement, as neither *P. mirabilis* nor *E. faecalis* exhibited altered biofilm biomass when

separated by a transwell insert (32). In agreement with this prior observation, supplementation

with excess L-ornithine alone had no impact on the biomass of any single or polymicrobial

biofilm (Figure 4 B). In contrast, supplementation with excess L-arginine alone had no impact

the biomass of single-species biofilms but was sufficient to promote increased biomass of

polymicrobial biofilms and even restored biomass of the *P. mirabilis* Δ*argF* and *E. faecalis*

Δ*arcD* polymicrobial biofilm to the same level as that formed by co-culture of the parental

isolates (Figure 4 C). The effect of L-arginine appears to be specifically related to arginine

levels rather than the metabolism of L-arginine to catabolic products, as supplementation with

agmatine had no impact on the biomass of either single-species or polymicrobial biofilms. We

further confirmed that the polymicrobial biofilms formed by *P. mirabilis argF* with *E. faecalis*

arcD exhibited significantly reduced protein content (Figure 4 E). Thus, L-arginine is a critical

mediator of the interactions that promote polymicrobial biofilm formation and increased protein

content.

We next sought to explore the contribution of *E. faecalis* ornithine export and *P.*

mirabilis arginine biosynthesis and metabolism to polymicrobial biofilm formation in human

urine, as this is the most physiologically-relevant medium for urinary tract pathogens. Biomass

enhancement was observed when wild-type *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* were co-cultured (Figure

4 F) and was again independent of any potential impact on bacterial viability (Supplemental 4).

None of the mutants exhibited biomass defects in single-species biofilms, but disruption of *arcD*

and *argF* again abrogated polymicrobial biofilm enhancement (Figure 4 F). Thus, *E. faecalis* L-

ornithine export and *P. mirabilis* arginine biosynthesis are critical components of polymicrobial

biofilm formation, including under physiologically relevant conditions.

L-ornithine secretion by *E. faecalis* and L-arginine biosynthesis by *P. mirabilis* contribute

to enhanced disease severity and dissemination during polymicrobial infection. We

previously demonstrated that polymicrobial infection with *E. faecalis* and *P. mirabilis*

substantially increases disease severity during experimental CAUTI and we have also previously

demonstrated the importance of biofilm formation to bacterial pathogenesis in the context of

CAUTI (32, 38, 39). We therefore sought to determine the contribution of *E. faecalis* L-ornithine

secretion and *P. mirabilis* arginine biosynthesis to the successful establishment of polymicrobial

catheter biofilms as well as promoting dissemination to the kidneys and bloodstream and overall

disease severity. To address this hypothesis, we utilized the *E. faecalis arcD* mutant and the *P.*

mirabilis argF mutant to examine the specific contribution of ornithine export and arginine

biosynthesis to pathogenesis in the well-established murine CAUTI model (35, 40, 41). Female

CBA/J mice aged 6-8 weeks were transurethrally inoculated with 10^5 CFUs of either wild type *P.*

mirabilis, the *argF* mutant, wild-type *E. faecalis,* the *arcD* mutant, or polymicrobial mixtures*,*

and a 4mm silicone catheter segment was placed in the bladder during inoculation. Mice were

euthanized 96 hours post-inoculation and bacterial burden was quantified in the urine, bladder,

kidneys, and spleen (Figure 5).

Neither ArgF nor ArcD were important for establishing single-species infection, as the

mutants colonized all organs of the urinary tract to a similar level as the wild-type strains (Figure

5 A&B). There were also no differences in infection severity for *arcD* compared to wild-type *E.*

faecalis, and the only difference observed for *argF* was a decrease in the number of mice that

developed bacteremia (Table 2). However, differences in disease severity became much more

apparent in the context of polymicrobial infection. Both species were detected in all coinfected

mice by differential plating (Supplement 5), but mice coinfected with the mutant strains

displayed a consistent trend towards decreased CFUs in all organs compared to mice coinfected

with the wild-type strains, although the decrease was only statistically significant in the spleen

(Figure 5 C). Strikingly, animals coinfected with the mutant strains had significantly fewer

indicators of severe disease as compared to mice coinfected with the wild type strains, including

kidney discoloration and mottling, kidney hematoma, and bacteremia (Table 2). The decreased

incidence of bacteremia is particularly notable, as an increased incidence of bacteremia is one of

the hallmarks of *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* coinfection compared to single-species infection

(39). Taken together, these data clearly demonstrate that L-ornithine secretion by *E. faecalis*

facilitates L-arginine biosynthesis by *P. mirabilis,* the combined action of which alters

polymicrobial biofilm formation and infection severity.

Discussion

Bacterial biofilms and the ability of pathogens to form biofilms has long been noted to be

vital for pathogenesis and disease progression in a variety of disease contexts throughout the

human body, including CAUTI (42–45). Additionally, there has been a growing appreciation for

the fact that many diseases and biofilms are polymicrobial environments, where the network of

interactions between bacterial species and the host are important determinants of the overall

course of disease development (10, 31, 45–48). However, there is still a dearth of studies

addressing and disentangling the interactions that contribute to polymicrobial biofilm formation

and infection, let alone their contributions to pathogenesis. Previously, we had demonstrated that

E. faecalis and *P. mirabilis* are frequent co-colonizers in catheterized patient populations and

that they co-localize and form unique biofilm communities with enhanced biofilm biomass,

persistence, and antibiotic resistance (10). However, the underlying mechanism was yet to be

understood.

Herein, we have demonstrated that L-ornithine secretion from *E. faecalis* feeds into L-

arginine metabolism of *P. mirabilis,* resulting in a contact-dependent increases in protein content

and biofilm biomass compared to single-species biofilms. Not only were we able to demonstrate

that this particularly metabolic interaction influences biofilm formation *in vitro*, but we also

uncovered an important role for this cross-feeding in mediating disease severity in a mouse

model of polymicrobial CAUTI. This study adds to a growing body of work that metabolic

cross-feeding may be a common phenomenon in CAUTI. Previously, Keogh et al (2016)

demonstrated that L-ornithine secretion from *E. faecalis* was a major influence on *E. coli*

siderophore production and biofilm growth under iron-limitation, and persistence in a wound

infection model (49). Our work builds upon this observation and underscores the pivotal role that

E. faecalis L-ornithine secretion plays in mediating polymicrobial interactions in multiple

disease contexts.

Considering that supplementation with arginine alone augmented polymicrobial biofilm

formation while its catabolic product (agmatine) did not, our data strongly clearly indicate that

arginine is the key factor mediating biofilm enhancement. However, the specific fate of arginine

remains to be determined. *P. mirabilis* may directly utilize the excess L-arginine for assembly of

specific proteins that mediate biofilm enhancement. Alternatively, the L-arginine generated by *P.*

mirabilis may be acting as nutrient signal within *P. mirabilis* and triggering phenotypic changes

that influence biofilm formation, rather than being directly funneled into protein synthesis. It is

also entirely possible that the L-arginine generated by *P. mirabilis* is being exported and taken up

by *E. faecalis.* If this is the case, *E. faecalis* may be generating the critical proteins for driving

biofilm enhancement. Future efforts will be focused on identifying the protein mediators of

biofilm enhancement, distinguishing which microbe is responsible for their production, and

defining the role of L-arginine in their biosynthesis.

Given that *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* both exhibit intrinsic resistance to a variety of

antibiotics and that polymicrobial biofilm formation further exacerbates these concerns, it is

important to consider how this work can be used to develop new approaches to either prevent or

disrupt the establishment of these biofilms. Our data suggest that targeting ornithine metabolism

and arginine biosynthesis may represent a new avenue for exploration, especially as disrupting

these pathways also decreases risk of developing severe disease during experimental infection.

However, considering that catheter-associated bacteriuria and CAUTI also frequently involve

additional co-colonizing species such as *E. coli,* additional investigations are needed to

understand how other co-colonizing pathogens influence biofilm formation, metabolic cross-

feeding, and disease progression.

Methods

Bacterial strains. *Proteus mirabilis* strain HI4320 was isolated from the urine of a long-term catheterized patient in a chronic care facility(50). All *P. mirabilis* mutants used in this study were generated by inserting a kanamycin resistance cassette into the gene of interest following the Sigma TargeTron group II intro protocol as previously described (51, 52). The *P. mirabilis* Δ*speF* mutant was previously constructed (26), while the *argF* mutant was specifically generated for this study. Mutants were verified by selection on kanamycin and PCR. The *Enterococcus faecalis* strain used in this study is an oral clinical isolate, OG1RF (53, 54). The *E. faecalis* Δ*arcD* mutant was previously generated via mariner transposon mutagenesis (33, 55, 56).

Bacterial culture conditions. *P. mirabilis* was cultured at 37°C with shaking at 225 RPM in 5 mL of low-salt LB (LSLB) broth (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 0.1g/L NaCl) or on LSLB plates solidified with 1.5% agar. *E. faecalis* was routinely cultured in 5 mL of Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) broth at 37°C with shaking at 225 RPM or on BHI agar plates solidified with 1.5% agar. *P. mirabilis* mutant strains were grown in media supplemented with 50 µg/mL kanamycin, while *E. faecalis* mutant strains were grown with 8 µg/mL chloramphenicol. Both species of bacteria were also grown in Tryptic Soy Broth supplemented with 1.5% glucose (TSB-G) as indicated. *Proteus mirabilis* minimal salts medium (PMSM) was used in experiments requiring defined growth medium (10.5 g/L K_2HPO_4, 4.5 g/L KH_2PO_4, 1 g/L $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 15 g/L agar, supplemented with 0.002% nicotinic acid, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, and 0.2% glycerol). PMSM was supplemented further with addition of 10 mM L-ornithine, L-arginine, or L-citrulline as indicated. Filter sterilized pooled human urine from at least 20 de-identified female donors was purchased from Cone Bioproducts (Sequin, TX), stored at -80C, and used as

indicated as a physiologically relevant growth medium. For co-challenge experiments, samples

were plated on plain LSLB agar (total CFUs), LSLB with kanamycin (*P. mirabilis* mutant strain

CFUs), and BHI agar supplemented with 100 µg/ml spectinomycin (*E. faecalis* CFUs).

Crystal violet staining of bacterial biofilms. Overnight cultures of wild-type or mutant bacteria

were adjusted to approximately $2x10^7$ CFU/mL, an OD_{600} of 0.02 for *P. mirabilis* and OD_{600} of

0.04 for *E. faecalis*, in either TSB-G or pooled human urine as indicated, and 750 µL was

dispensed in triplicate into the wells of tissue culture treated 24-well plates (Falcon 353047). For

polymicrobial biofilms, 325 µL of the appropriate *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* strains were added

to the well to a final volume of 750 µL. Sterile media was dispensed in triplicate into wells to

serve as a blank for the crystal violet staining. Plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37°C in

partially sealed bags with a damp paper towel, after which supernatants were gently aspirated

and adherent biofilms were washed twice with 1 mL of 1x phosphate buffered saline (PBS), care

was taken to not disrupt the biofilm community. Next, 1 mL of 95% ethanol was added to each

well and the plate was incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes, after which ethanol was

aspirated and the plate was allowed to air dry with the lid off for 60 minutes. Biofilms were then

stained with 0.1% crystal violet and incubated at room temperature for 60 minutes, after such

time the crystal violet solution was aspirated and biofilms were washed once with 1 mL of

deionized water. Stained biofilms were solubilized in 1 mL of 95% ethanol and plates were

incubated at room temperature on a plate shaker at 200 RPM for 15 minutes. Using a

micropipette tip, the bottom and sides of wells in the plate were scraped to ensure all stained

biofilm biomass was fully resuspended. Crystal violet absorbance was then read at 570 nm using

a BioTek Synergy H1 plate reader. Crystal violet absorbance in all figures is expressed relative

to absorbance in the *E. faecalis* monoculture biofilm wells.

Determination of bacterial viability of biofilms. Biofilms were established in triplicate in

tissue culture treated 24-well plates as described above and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C.

Supernatants were removed, biofilms were gently washed with 1mL of sterile 1x PBS, and

scraped as described above to resuspend. Suspensions were then serially diluted and plated onto

appropriate agar using an EddyJet 2 spiral plater (Neutec Group) for determination of CFUs

using a ProtoCOL 3 automated colony counter (Synbiosis).

Growth curves. Overnight cultures of bacteria were adjusted to approximately 2×10^7 CFU/mL

in the various growth media described above. 200 µL of the adjusted bacterial suspension was

distributed in at least triplicate wells of a clear 96-well plate and incubated in a BioTek Synergy

H1 96-well plate reader at 37°C with continuous double-orbital shaking and a 1°C temperature

differential between the top and bottom of the plate to prevent condensation. Bacterial growth

was assessed via absorbance (OD_{600}) every 15 minutes for a period of 18 hours. For assessment

of CFUs, 5 mL bacterial suspensions were incubated at 37°C with shaking at 225 RPM, aliquots

were taken hourly, serially diluted, and plated onto appropriate agar using an EddyJet 2 spiral

plater (Neutec Group) for determination of CFUs using a ProtoCOL 3 automated colony counter

(Synbiosis).

Biofilm compositional analysis. Biofilms were established as described above in 24-well plates

and incubated for 20 hours at 37°C, with the exception that an entire 24-well plate was used for

each inoculum. Compositional analysis was performed as previously described for *P. mirabilis*

(57). Briefly, supernatants were removed and all wells of the entire 24-well plate were gently

resuspended into a total volume of 3 mL of sterile Milli-Q water, an aliquot was removed from

this total volume to generate the biofilm suspension fraction (BS). Suspensions were fixed for 1

hour with formaldehyde (37%) by incubating at room temperature with shaking at 200 RPM. 1

M NaOH was then added and samples were incubated for 3 hours at room temperature with

shaking at 200 RPM. Samples were then centrifuged (20,000xg) for 1 hour at 4°C. Supernatant

containing the soluble extrapolymeric substance (EPS) was removed and placed in a sterile

microcentrifuge tube, while the remaining pellet was resuspended in 1 mL Milli-Q water to

generate the cell fraction (CF). The EPS was filtered through a 0.22 µm filter and then was

transferred to Slide-A-Lyzer dialysis cassette (Thermofisher, Cat# 66380) and placed in beaker

containing Milli-Q water. The Milli-Q water was replaced twice after 2 hours, after which the

sample was left to dialyze overnight. Samples were removed from the dialysis cassette to

generate the EPS fraction (EPS). All samples were stored at -20C until end point analysis. Total

eDNA was determined using the PicoGreen assay (Invitrogen, MP07581), total carbohydrate

was determined by phenol-sulfuric acid method as described previously, and total protein was

determined via Pierce BCA protein assay kit (Thermofisher, Cat# 23250), all following the

manufacturer's instructions (57, 58). For comparison of wild-type and mutant polymicrobial

biofilm protein content, biofilms were established in 24-well plates and grown for 24 hours at

37°C, after which three wells were scrapped, pooled, and analyzed as described above.

Liquid-chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis of bacterial biofilms. *Protein*

digestion: Biofilm suspension fraction (BS) was prepared as described above. After which, a

surfactant-aided precipitation/on-pellet digestion method was adopted in the current study for

sample preparation (59). In brief, 100 µg protein was aliquoted from each sample and diluted to

1 µg/µL with 1% SDS. Protein was sequentially reduced by 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) at 56°C

for 30 min and alkylated by 25 mM iodoacetamide (IAM) at 37°C in darkness for 30 min. Both

steps were performed with rigorous vortexing in a thermomixer (Eppendorf). A total of 6

volumes of chilled acetone was then added to each sample with constant vortexing, and the

mixture was incubated at -20°C for 3 hr. After centrifugation at 20,000 g, 4°C for 30 min, liquid

was decanted, and protein pellet was gently washed by 500 µL methanol and air-dried for 1 min.

A volume of 80 µL 50 mM pH 8.4 Tris-formic acid (FA) was then added, and samples were

sonicated to loosen the protein pellet. A total volume of 20 µL trypsin (Sigma Aldrich, dissolved

in 50 mM pH 8.4 Tris-FA) was added for 6-hr digestion at 37°C with rigorous vortexing in a

thermomixer. Digestion was terminated by addition of 1 µL FA, and samples were centrifuged at

20,000 g, 4°C for 30 min. Supernatant was carefully transferred to LC vials for analysis.

LC-MS analysis: The LC-MS system consists of a Dionex µLtimate 3000 nano LC

system, a Dinex µLtimate 3000 micro LC system with a WPS-3000 autosampler, and a

ThermoFisher Orbitrap Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer. A large-inner diameter (i.d.) trapping

column (300-um i.d. x 5 mm) was coupled to the nano LC column (75-um i.d. x 65 cm, packed

with 2.5-um Xselect CSH C18 material) for high-capacity sample loading, cleanup and delivery.

For each sample, 4 µL derived peptide was injected for LC-MS analysis. Mobile phase A and B

were 0.1% FA in 2% acetonitrile (ACN) and 0.1% FA in 88% ACN. The 180-min LC gradient

profile was: 4% for 3 min, 4–11 for 5 min, 11–32% B for 117 min, 32–50% B for 10 min, 50–

97% B for 5 min, 97% B for 7 min, and then equilibrated to 4% for 27 min. The mass

spectrometer was operated under data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode with a maximal duty

cycle of 3 s. MS1 spectra was acquired by Orbitrap (OT) under 120k resolution for ions within

the m/z range of 400-1,500. Automatic Gain Control (AGC) and maximal injection time was set

at 120% and 50 ms, and dynamic exclusion was set at 45 s, ± 10 ppm. Precursor ions were

isolated by quadrupole using a m/z window of 1.2 Th, and were fragmented by high-energy

collision dissociation (HCD). MS2 spectra was acquired OT under 15k resolution with a

maximal injection time of 50 ms. Detailed LC-MS settings and relevant information are enclosed

in a previous publication by Shen et al.(60).

Data processing: LC-MS files were searched against a NCBI protein sequence database

containing both *Proteus mirabilis* and *Enterococcus faecalis* protein sequences using Sequest HT

embedded in Proteome Discoverer 1.4 (ThermoFisher Scientific). Target-decoy searching

approach using a concatenated forward and reverse protein sequence database was employed for

global FDR estimation and control. Searching parameters include: 1) Precursor ion mass

tolerance: 20 ppm; 2) Product ion mass tolerance: 0.02 Da; 3) Maximal missed cleavages per

peptide: 2; 4) Fixed modifications: carbamidomethylation of cysteine; 5) Dynamic

modifications: Oxidation of methionine, Acetylation of peptide N-terminals. Peptide filtering,

protein inference and grouping, and FDR control were accomplished by Scaffold v5.0.0

(Proteome Software, Inc.) The filtered peptide-spectrum match (PSM) list was exported. Protein

quantification was performed using IonStar, an in-house developed MS1 ion current-based

quantitative proteomics method (61). Peptide quantitative features were first generated by a two-

step procedure encompassing 1) Chromatographic alignment with ChromAlign for inter-run

calibration of retention time (RT) shift; ii) Data-independent MS1 feature generation a direct ion-

current extraction (DICE) method, which extracts ion chromatograms for all precursor ions with

corresponding MS2 scans in the aligned dataset with a defined m/z-RT window (10 ppm, 1 min).

Both steps were accomplished in SIEVE v2.2 (ThermoFisher Scientific). Post-feature generation

data processing was accomplished by UHR-IonStar v1.4 (https://github.com/JunQu-

Lab/UHRIonStarApp) (62). The filtered PSM list and the quantitative features database were

first integrated by MS2 scan number to generate a list of annotated frames with peptide sequence

assignment. The annotated frames were then subjected to dataset-wide normalization, principal

component-based detection and removal of peptide outliers, and data aggregation to protein

level. Protein quantification results were exported and manually curated and processed in

Microsoft Excel.

Mouse model of CAUTI. CAUTI studies were performed as previously described (35, 40, 63).

In short, the inoculum was prepared by washing overnight cultures in PBS and adjusting to an

OD_{600} of 0.2 for *P. mirabilis* and OD_{600} of 0.4 for *E. faecalis* (~$2x10^8$ CFU/mL), then diluting

1:100 to make a final inoculum of $2x10^6$ CFU/mL. Co-challenge inocula were generated by

combining a 50:50 mix of each single-species inoculum. Female CBA/J mice aged 6-8 weeks

(Jackson Laboratory) were anesthetized with a weight appropriate dose of ketamine/xylazine

(80-120mg/kg ketamine and 5-10 mg/kg xylazine) via IP injection, after which mice were

inoculated transurethrally with 50 µL of the appropriate inoculum suspension, delivering ~$1x10^5$

CFU/mouse. A 4 mm segment of sterile silicone tubing (0.64 mm O.D., 0.30 mm I.D., Braintree

Scientific Inc.) was advanced into the bladder during inoculation and retained there for the

duration of the study as done previously (40, 64). After 96 hours, urine was collected, bladders,

kidneys, and spleens were harvested and placed into 5 mL Eppendorf tubes containing 1 mL 1x

PBS. Tissues were homogenized using a Bullet Blender 5 Gold (Next Advance, Speed 8, 4

minutes). Bladders were treated to two cycles to ensure full homogenization. Tissue

homogenates were serially diluted and plated onto appropriate agar using an EddyJet 2 spiral

plater (Neutec Group) for determination of CFUs using a ProtoCOL 3 automated colony counter

(Synbiosis).

Statistical analysis. Statistical significance of experimental results for biofilm, CFU, and growth

curve data was assessed by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) multiple comparisons or

one-way ANOVA as indicated in figure legends. For CAUTI model results, CFUs data was

assessed by one-way ANOVA of $\log_{10}$ transformed data and chi-square tests were used to

analyzed incidences of abnormalities and health events. These analyses were performed using

GraphPad Prism, version 9.3 (GraphPad Software) with a 95% confidence interval.

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Table 1. Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis shows an upregulation of many ornithine and arginine metabolism related genes. LC-MS analysis summary detailing the ratio of proteins within the polymicrobial biofilms compared to single species biofilms. Proteins involved in metabolism that were at least 2-fold increased in polymicrobial biofilms are displayed, and proteins related to ornithine/arginine metabolism are highlighted in red text.

P. mirabilis		E. faecalis	
Protein Name [Species mapping]	**Ratio**	**Protein Name [Species mapping]**	**Ratio**
arginine ABC transporter substrate-binding protein [Enterobacterales]	2.08	Trk family potassium (K+) transporter, membrane protein [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	81.90
ornithine carbamoyltransferase [Proteus]	2.31	carbamoyl-phosphate synthase, large subunit [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	89.25
2OG-Fe dioxygenase family protein [Proteus]	3.51	hypothetical protein OG1RF_11509 [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	89.74
ornithine decarboxylase SpeF [Proteus mirabilis]	4.03	pyruvate phosphate dikinase [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	90.17
argininosuccinate lyase [Proteus]	4.08	methylmalonate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase (acylating) [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	109.13
UDP-N-acetylglucosamine 2-epimerase (non-hydrolyzing) [Proteus]	4.25	YehR like protein [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	118.52
FAD-dependent oxidoreductase [Proteus]	4.78	dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	132.58
fimbrial chaperone [Proteus]	5.72	anaerobic ribonucleoside-triphosphate reductase large subunit [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	149.40
argininosuccinate synthase [Proteus]	6.18	3-methyl-2-oxobutanoate dehydrogenase [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	154.12
electron transport complex subunit RsxC [Enterobacterales]	7.12	ABC superfamily ATP binding cassette transporter, ABC/membrane protein [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	211.30
nitrogen regulation protein NR(II) [Enterobacterales]	7.29	spermidine/putrescine ABC superfamily ATP binding cassette transporter, ABC protein [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	264.33
ABC transporter permease [Proteus]	7.95	2-dehydropantoate 2-reductase [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	476.32
acetylglutamate kinase [Proteus mirabilis]	8.23	selenium-dependent molybdenum hydroxylase 1 [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	627.14
N-acetyl-gamma-glutamyl-phosphate reductase [Proteus]	10.62	branched-chain alpha-keto acid [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	666.84
hypothetical protein [Proteus]	13.23	putative transcriptional activator SrlM [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	1088.25
LysR family transcriptional regulator [Proteus]	14.92	5-dehydro-2-deoxygluconokinase [Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF]	1487.36

Table 2. Disruption of metabolic cooperation between *E. faecalis* and *P. mirabilis* results in a significant reduction in disease severity and tissue invasion in polymicrobial CAUTI infection. Incidence of bacteremia and tissue abnormalities in murine CAUTI infections. Chi-square test used to determine if frequency of events were statistically different between groups.

Adverse health event or tissue abnormality	Pm	ΔargF	P value	Ef	ΔarcD	P value	Pm + Ef	ΔargF + ΔarcD	P value
Bladder hematoma and/or blood in urine	1/13	0/11	0.306	0/20	0/18	>0.999	0/14	0/13	>0.999
Kidney hematoma	3/13	0/11	0.088	0/20	0/18	>0.999	5/14	0/13	0.011*
Kidney color change and/or mottling	1/13	0/11	0.347	0/20	0/18	>0.999	8/14	2/13	0.013*
Kidney stone	2/13	3/11	0.475	0/20	0/18	>0.999	5/14	1/13	0.054
Any abnormality	4/13	3/11	0.099	0/20	0/18	>0.999	8/14	2/13	0.013*
Bacteremia	11/13	4/11	0.015*	0/20	0/18	>0.999	13/14	6/13	0.003*

Figure 1. *P. mirabilis* **and** *E. faecalis* **polymicrobial biofilms exhibit enhanced biofilm biomass that is driven by biofilm compositional changes and not bacterial counts.** A) Crystal violet staining of biofilms grown for 24hrs in TSB-G. B) Colony forming units of biofilms grown for 24hrs in TSB-G. Data represent the mean ± standard deviation for 3-5 independent experiments with at least three replicates each. ns = non-significant, One-way ANOVA multiple comparisons, * p<0.05, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001. Biofilm compositional analysis of 20-hour single or polymicrobial biofilms detailing C) total eDNA, d) total carbohydrate, E) total protein, and F) proteinase-K treatment of polymicrobial biofilm abrogates the enhancement phenotype. BS = biofilm supernatant fraction, CF = cell associated fraction, EPS = extrapolymeric substance fraction. Data represent the mean ± standard deviation for at least three independent experiments with at least two replicates each. ns = non-significant, * p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 by repeated measures one-way ANOVA.

Figure 2. Schematic of *P. mirabilis* **L-ornithine and L-arginine metabolism.** All known genes involved in L-ornithine metabolism and L-arginine biosynthesis in *P. mirabilis* are displayed. L-ornithine can either be directly catabolized to putrescine via ornithine decarboxylate (SpeF), or it can feed into L-arginine biosynthesis via ornithine carbamoyltransferse (ArgF), which generates L-citrulline. Argininosuccinate synthase (PMI_RS16015) uses ATP to generate L-arginino-succinate from L-citrulline and L-aspartate, then argininosuccinate lyase (ArgH) generates L-

arginine and fumarate from L-arginino-succinate. L-arginine can then be catabolized to putrescine via arginine decarboxylase (SpeA) and agmatinase (SpeB).

Figure 3. Ornithine and arginine metabolism are key determinants of *P. mirabilis* growth *in vitro* in both laboratory media and physiologically relevant pooled human urine. *Enterococcus faecalis* growth curves in A) BHI, B) TSB-G, and C) pooled human urine. *Proteus mirabilis* growth curves in D) TSB-G E) low-salt LB, F) PMSM (*Proteus* minimal salts media), G) PMSM supplemented with 10 mM supplemented ornithine, H) PMSM supplemented with 10mM arginine, I) PMSM supplemented with 10 mM citrulline, and J) pooled human urine. Data represent the mean and standard deviation of at least three biological replicates.

Figure 4. L-ornithine secretion from *E. faecalis* and arginine biosynthesis by *P. mirabilis* are critical drivers of increased biofilm biomass production. Crystal violet staining of biofilms grown for 24hrs in TSB-G with either A) no supplementation, B) 10 mM ornithine, C) 10 mM arginine, D) or 10mM agmatine. E) Total protein of pooled biofilm fractions of polymicrobial biofilms grown for 24-hours in TSB-G. F) Crystal violet staining of biofilms grown for 24-hours in pooled human urine. Data represent the mean ± standard deviation for 3-5 independent experiments with at least two replicates each. ns = non-significant, One-way ANOVA multiple comparisons, *p<0.05, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 5. Disruption of metabolic cooperation between *E. faecalis* and *P. mirabilis* decreases dissemination of polymicrobial CAUTI infection. Bacterial counts in urine (U),

bladder (B), kidneys (K), and spleens (S) samples collected at 96hrs post infection in CAUTI murine model. Single-species infections were conducted with 10^5 CFUs/mL of either A) wild type *P. mirabilis* or *P. mirabilis* Δ*argF*, or B) wild type *E. faecalis* or *E. faecalis* Δ*arcD*. C) Polymicrobial infections were conducted with 50:50 mixtures of both wild-type species or both mutants, and each datapoint represents the total bacterial burden per organ. *p<0.05 by nonparametric One-Way ANOVA.

Supplement 1. Characterization of *P. mirabilis* virulence factors in the metabolic mutants shows no changes in other common virulence phenotypes. A) Urease activity was measured via urease activity phenol red assay. Absorbance OD_{562} was measured at every minute for 120 minutes. Urease activity was expressed as the area under the curve of mean change in optical density per minute. *P. mirabilis* urease deficient mutant, *ureF*, was used as a negative control. B) Swimming motility of each strain was determined after incubation overnight at 30°C and reported as the diameter of the swimming ring. C) Swarming motility of each strain was measured after incubation overnight at 37°C. The diameter of each swarming ring was measured and reported. Data is representative of three biological replicate experiments.

Supplement 2. Growth of *argF* is not restored by supplementation with agmatine or putrescine. PMSM growth curves supplemented with A) 10mM agmatine or B) 10 mM putrescine. Data is representative of three biological replicate experiments.

Supplemental 3. Fitness of *P. mirabilis argF*, *P. mirabilis speF*, and *E. faecalis arcD* during growth in human urine. Competitive index (CI) of co-inoculated A) wild-type *P. mirabilis* and *speF* mutant in pooled human urine, B) wild-type *P. mirabilis* and *argF* mutant in pooled human urine, C) wild-type *P. mirabilis* and *argF* mutant in pooled human urine with 10 mM citrulline supplementation, or D) wild-type *E. faecalis* and *arcD* mutant in pooled human urine. Each symbol represents the $\log_{10}$ CI for an individual inoculum, error bars represent the medians and dashed line indicates the $\log_{10}$ CI $= 0$ (the expected value if the ratio of mutant/WT is 1:1). E) *P. mirabilis* and *argF* CFUs over the time course used to calculate the CI. F) *E. faecalis* and *arcD*

CFUs over the time course used to calculate the CI. Error bars represent mean and standard deviation. *P<0.05, **P<0.01 by two-way ANOVA comparison to wild-type CFUs.

Supplemental figure 4. Changes in colony forming units between wild-type and mutant biofilms is insignificant and not a driving factor for the differences in biofilm biomass. CFUs of biofilms grown for 24-hours in A) TSB-G or B) pooled human urine. Data represent the mean ± standard deviation for at least three independent experiments with at least two replicates each. ns = non-significant, * = P<.05 as determined by One-way ANOVA.

Supplemental 5. Colony forming units of each species from coinfected mice. *P. mirabilis* and *E. faecalis* bacterial counts in urine (U), bladder (B), kidney (K), and spleen (S) homogenates from an individual coinfected mouse are connected with a black line.